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in the khwan khăo "gift" handy cash. The income was about 40 to 200 baht ($2.00 to $20.00) per year.

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The duties of a midwife were not time consuming if all went well. There was practically no pre-natal care, and a few hours of care was given for only three days after birth. If complications arose, though, the midwife spent long hours away from home. In fact the husband of one midwife grumbled, "You don't receive anything, and just waste time. Sometimes you stay away over night, and no one watches the house or the children."

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In their social role, midwives felt personal but not group solidarity. A solid bond existed between an older midwife and the particular younger one to whom he or she had given training and magic. Those related by blood or marriage sometimes worked together, and even turned over cases to each other if outside demands became pre-eminent. If in trouble on a case, midwives did not call on each other unless as close, affectionate relatives but turned rather for help from a mŏ or to the Mĭnburī Health Center. Yet sometimes rivalry was severe. If the family of the parturient felt that no progress was being made with one midwife, they called in another and another. Each did his utmost and then stepped down when it had to be admitted, "My magic is not enough." The final expert who brought mother and baby through before the deposed midwives glowed inwardly with pride and skill and satisfaction that the magic of his particular teacher had proved effective. The sharpness of the competition reverberated through the words, "I pushed the other midwives down." Community standing or "face" was not lost by an unsuccessful case because of the midwives' fundamental role as helpers only, their faith in their own experiences, and again, the conviction that the course of childbirth was merit-determined.

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Though living like other elder citizens of the community, in their social role they were more respected. Known as selfless donors of time and energy for the sake of others, whose successes gave proof of merit and nurturing capacity, they were viewed as assets to the community. In spite of competition considerable affection was evident between some. They were elders before a sea of youth, old friends who had for years lived and farmed side by side, met at ceremonies, and shared many experiences.

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If the case were in difficulty sometimes a mŏ was called, sometimes a midwife or even both. What was the nature of their respective specialties? What in fact made certain midwives "professionals" (thăm ăchĭp [Mc.F. 990]) when others who had equal or more experience were not so considered?

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to make use of modern facilities one suffered confusing and unhappy experiences. Bangkok traffic was dizzying, even if one knew just where to go. Hospitals had beds, not mats, and the personnel were strangers. Foods were often unfamiliar or violated traditional injunctions concerning heating and cooling. People were brusque, impersonal, and overbearing to country people. One woman complained, "I am afraid of the doctor there. She scolds me and does not treat me like city people. She will not explain what the sickness is." Minburi's clinic was small, set up in more familiar terms, and the staff known personally to many villagers.

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Finally, there was the problem of finding an experienced escort, i.e. someone who "knew the way." More was involved than just convenience. In all walks of Bang Chan's life, no one ever presented himself to a school, to a household, anywhere, without a personal introduction from someone who had been there before, and so was accustomed (khoei) to it. It was not hard to find someone who had been to the Minburi Health Center, but it was difficult to find one who had been to a hospital in Bangkok, knew what to do, and had the time, money, and inclination to act as escort. The latter was always a relative by blood or marriage or the sick person's mo himself (Hanks and Hanks, 1955: 160). Actually, five or ten persons might accompany an ill person, only one of which was acting as the recognized go-between. Many of those who had been to a hospital or clinic as patients had previously accompanied others merely as escort, or to visit (Goldsen and Ralis 1955:31).

758 743 184 178 [369] [844] [554]

Who had actually tried modern medicine for one reason or another? About a third of the household heads had used some modern clinic or hospital for treatment or hospitalization (Goldsen and Ralis 1955:31). Use was more frequent among (1) the literate, (2) those exposed to the mass media of radio and movies, (3) those accepting certain urban ways, and (4) those having greater contacts with the city in the way of visits, but users were not of a noticeably higher economic level (ibid:37). Women went no more frequently than men (ibid:32). No figures indicated how many of these occasions were for childbirth, but our interviews point to a small number. Taking the will for the deed, two women teachers who appeared to be the first to plan ahead to be delivered at the Minburi Health Center--but who did not get there because labor was too quick--seemed to be viewing the use of modern methods as a means to higher status.

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Why was modern obstetrics so largely eschewed? What had been Bang Chan's experience, unfavorable or favorable, that colored their attitudes? First, home was the most convenient place for care. Bangkok was ruled out categorically as too far. In fact, Minburi might be too far if labor manifested its normal celerity as the case of the two teachers showed, or if complications had developed. Furthermore, a Chinese resident of Bang

178 a new way was a woman bearing her first child because she
184 was not yet ritually matured. This she wanted to be.
Moreover, her self-interest led her to try to profit as
312 much as possible from the experience of elders by first
846 following the old way. By incorporating the experience
885 of successful child-bearers into her own and the baby's life and by asking them to initiate actions auspiciously, she augmented by that much her own competence, and laid the groundwork for her future progress. Self-responsibility engendered respect for elders. Thus there was no split between old and young over innovations. Experience gave grounds both for conservatism and for changing, but at different age levels.

178 Secondly, changes were adopted by the rich who,
184 spending their money rather conspicuously, sought to main-
556 tain and enhance their social position. Their wealth and position were in themselves unquestioned as signs of merit earned in another incarnation.

178 The changes being introduced to Bang Chan were of two
• 554 kinds: first the prestigeful, and second, those giving no increment of esteem, i.e. idiosyncratic changes of taste or convenience; or those reflecting individual circumstances. The prestigeful innovations were oriented towards the use of market novelties, modern medical care, urban standards of cleanliness and beauty, and other ways termed "progressive" associated with the city of Bangkok, cynosure of the eyes of the rich. These values were leading certain families away from their original occupation of farming, into the fields of teaching, trading, carpentering, cottage-industry, etc. Since these new occupations brought in steady cash and large land holders, too, had a good income, an association was found of
372 wealth, prestige, urban interests, and innovation. Com-
846 ment on the hot ashes container (fai chut) indicated that
178 it was a strong symbol of prestige and progress. To use it was "to get away from ignorance and the old way of doing things." It was "cleaner, not hot or ugly, and more convenient." One teacher took it up after reading an advertisement in the newspapers that described glowingly its more efficient healing effect. On the other hand, one woman abandoned the fai chut because "it was not hot enough to rid her of stiff muscles," so she went back to the use of the fire. "It is all right for rich Bangkok ladies who want to avoid a scar, but it does not give
177 enough strength for a farmer." She had no urban preten-
178 sions. Also in this prestigeful aggregate, observed here
278 and there, were the market novelties mentioned above:
854 bed, mat, and mosquito net instead of the plank-bed; kits of medicine from the Chinese pharmacist instead of the old

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home brew; rub-on medicine (yā chup) instead of a fire or fire-container; canned cows' milk, and nursing bottles for the baby, and the bottles washed with salt; the transfer of a baby from the tray to the cloth cradle before the termination of the fire-rest because "he needed fresh air;" and the rejection of the turmeric rub against the wind element as "dirty and ugly."

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To use modern medical care was becoming prestigeful. Most spectacular here was a case of a prosperous and educated man who had had 9 children, then "feared he could not feed them all," so underwent voluntarily a vasectomy. Patronage of the second class doctors who used modern medications but explained them in traditional terms was frequent among the well-to-do. The Minburī Health Center, a resource in case of over-long and difficult labor, was beginning to be seen as a fashionable place to go for medical care and parturition. The case of the 7 teachers who laid plans ahead to go to the Center (but their quick labor precluded attempting to get there) showed that prestige had a stronger lure than convenience at times. It was much more convenient to bear a child at home, yet one of these teachers even talked about wanting to be delivered in Bangkok at the Woman's Hospital, an extreme of prestige and practical inaccessibility.

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The drive toward progressiveness led to conscious re-examining of those "old ways" that could be visually tested. One woman said, "There are fewer spirits (phī) nowadays." There was the mother who pondered the maxim about burning up all the wood collected by the husband to make a child finish tasks when he grew up. Finding it not true, she abandoned it at her next confinement. A man said that the old belief that papaya should not be planted near the house because "it dies easily and doesn't like water," and so would affect a child, was "unreasonable because the harm was not specific [e.g. a threat to skin or eyes]. If specific, I might believe it." An opening wedge of disbelief was noted where a woman gave no bit of rice to her baby to start a habit for later benefits because "she was told but didn't believe it," and another who said the "winnowing rite was not important."

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In addition to prestigeful changes were those due to individual circumstance, taste or preference, and convenience unaffected by social aspirations. One woman rejected going to the Minburī Center for delivery and took up the hot-ashes container instead of a fire because she could better direct her older children, and "it was less hard on them." A poor woman took no medicine during pregnancy because she had no money to buy it. A comment that of recent years medicines were purchased because "women are too lazy to make them up" as in the old days, sounded more personal than socially significant. A change induced by lack of money was that "hot spices

251 which did not attract them could be left anywhere out of reach of dogs. Raw rice was stored in a large jar or oil can while salt, fermented fish, shrimp paste[1] and fishsoy[1] were kept in smaller jars or bottles. Such containers were customarily covered. Dried food materials such as onions, garlic, chili peppers and other seasonings were often kept in a basket hung from the roof. Paddy, i.e. unhusked rice, was kept in a large bin of matting or wood, the excess sometimes simply piled on an uncovered mat on the floor.

123 Descriptions of two kitchens, one in a relatively prosperous household and one in a poorer home in Bang Chan, are included in excerpts from field notes, Appendix A, p. 93.

312 In a few homes, a clay water jar was kept in the kitchen or nearby, but more frequently foods were washed, and cooking water obtained at the canal or fish pond.

The water level varied between heavy flood and threatened drought. There were no deep wells in the whole area. Rainwater was collected from the roofs and stored in jars, but during the dry season, the canal or fishpond, although low, must supply the needs of the household. In some, drinking water drawn from the fishpond was preferred, and an effort might be made to keep buffalo from wallowing in it, and to avoid contaminating it with fecal or food wastes or by bathing. Others considered the moving water of the canal preferable to pond water.

General Social Factors Affecting Nutritional Level

462 In Bang Chan, most farm and household tasks were shared by men and women. Both sexes plowed, planted, harvested and dealt with rice buyers; managed buffaloes, boats, and children; cooked, fished and cut wood for fuel; hired out as labor hands, "living in" if desired.

554 189 Though there were clear differences in socio-economic status, the daily life of the people was much alike: whether owners of land or renters, whether farming large or small acreages, the rich and the poor worked in the fields at the same tasks, produced or gathered much of their sustenance, and ran out of cash periodically. Socio-economic status was roughly defined in terms of food: a poor man "had one meal only to forego another;" a rich man "had or could get what he wanted to eat." (Sharp et al. 1953, p. 264.)

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1. Description of these products will be found on pp. 17-18.

was given away fresh to selected kin and friends, including those who helped to butcher, and the remainder was salted and dried. Of this, 7 kg. were kept and 5 kg. sold. Moslems are forbidden to eat an animal with two or four legs which "dies," although eating dead locusts or fish is not forbidden. Some Moslems in Bang Chan reported offering dead animals to Buddhists in barter for other materials.

Oxen, a sign of prosperity, were bought as calves by the Moslems and fattened for meat, usually with a ceremony in mind. In 1955 (Goldsen and Nalis, 1957) only 5 householders in Bang Chan raised hogs, and 4 of these had 1 or 2 only. Moslems ate no pork. A permit from the district officer was necessary for slaughtering a buffalo or an ox but not for hogs. Natural deaths of such animals were supposed to be reported.

Poultry was not commonly used for food in Bang Chan. It was the poor man's "feast" food suitable for guests. One couple in the lowest income level killed one chicken or a duck once a year to provide the traditionally good meal for their cooperative harvest helpers. Others, better off, might serve chicken especially at men's dinners. Pigeons were raised for sale in the market by one Moslem family. In 1953-54, one person was trying to raise a few turkeys for sale, as word had reached Bang Chan that turkeys were in demand for foreigners' holiday dinners. By 1957 turkey-raising for cash was spreading, but some villagers objected to having them around "because they look like vultures and bring misfortune."

Various wild creatures were used for food whenever they were caught. Turtle curry was considered a great delicacy, but as turtles, which could be caught from May to February, brought a good price in Bangkok, experts usually sold their catch. Frogs and turtles were sometimes kept in a jar until needed. Eels, frogs, cobra and other snakes were used for curry. Field rats, available all year, were roasted.

Fish. - Next to rice, fish constituted the most abundant food in the diet in Bang Chan. Either fresh or preserved,[1] they were available throughout the year. Killing

1. According to observation in 1952-54, fish caught in excess of immediate needs were preserved for later use. Serpentheads ((1)plaa (3)chauaun), which are about 7 or 8 inches long, and pilot fish ((1)plaa (2)sa-(2)lid), about 4 or 5 inches long, were commonly salted and dried. Heads and tails were removed and the fish were split open and salted overnight. The following morning the fish were washed and spread on fiber trays in the sun to dry. Some excess fish might be dried at anytime of year, but larger quantities were done during the hot, dry season. The process was usually complete within a week.

271 contaminated drinking water, but the traditional use of boiled water for newborn infants and their mothers, and its occasional use for sick persons, might provide the starting point for a desirable change.

Meal Preparation and Service

Processes and Equipment

252 The principal processes involved in food preparation for which equipment was required are: cutting solid food into bite-size pieces, pounding spices and flavoring materials, grating coconut, straining, boiling, sauteing in a small amount of fat, steaming, and roasting on a stick or metal support over the fire. Although foods were steamed or roasted only occasionally, the processes were familiar to all.

358 The Thai kitchen had no oven. When the term "baked" was used, it might mean cooking with dry heat on a rack over the fire (as banana baked in the skin) or without fat in the frying pan (as small dried fish toasted in this way).

128 Equipment used during meal preparation by the 11 fami-
415 lies observed on 44 survey days is listed in Appendix A, p. 96, that used in serving and eating food, on p. 96.

252 The type of food preparation and service was much the
415 same in the relatively well-to-do and the poorer households
553 in Bang Chan. The chief difference in equipment for food
184 preparation and service in families of different economic status was in the number of items of one kind which were owned. Thus a poor family might own one knife and one clay water jar, whereas an affluent family would probably own several knives and a number of water jars. Equipment used on special occasions, as in preparation of food for large numbers of people, was owned by well-to-do families only. Some had enough equipment for large cooperative work parties.

Persons Responsible for Food Preparation

252 Food was usually prepared by the homemaker and/or older
462 daughter, if one were at home, but all members of the family who were old enough to help, had some knowledge of food preparation and did prepare food as the occasion demanded. While preparing, cooking and serving food were more frequently carried out by women than by men, adults and school-age children of both sexes had some competence in this area. "While certain activities are normally assigned to men and others to women, the Thai maintain no rigid compartmentalization and are unembarrassed when a woman does a man's job or a man does

252 a woman's" (Sharp et al., 1953, p. 88). For instance, the
462 husband cooked when his wife was away from home, e.g. selling in the market or in farm labor, and of course when she was
252 sick or resting after childbirth. The ability of boys as well
867 as girls to cook rice and some of the accompaniments was taken for granted. A girl or boy could cook rice "as soon as he could lift the rice pot," e.g. at 6 or so; by age 12 he could cook a creditable meal. In mid-December, 1952, on the last day of school before vacation, one of us saw committees of school children (aged 7-14 years) preparing food for a special meal, on the school grounds. The variety of dishes prepared and the ease with which the children went about their tasks gave evidence of the home experience these children had had
252 (Hauck, 1953). Responsibility for food preparation increased
883 with age up to about 15 years, after which all available able-bodied family members did field work during the busy seasons (cf. p. 11). Several hours per day were spent in cooking and by middle age, parents were eager to turn this job over to a
897 daughter or daughter-in-law. If they had no daughter, this was an explicit reason for adopting a baby girl.

252 Certain men of eminence, e.g. headmen and elders, would
551 not be asked to cook at all, but as they aged, they might re-
891 turn to the task. One old headman, all of whose children had married and left home, said that he was doing the cooking for
252 2 months because his wife had back trouble. Some dishes were
542 cooked by men only, even when their wives stood by: turtle, frog and cobra curries, for instance. These were also food for men only, suitable to serve at a drinking party.

252 A premium was put on good cooking, and certain women
261 who were noted for their cooking were in great demand for large
868 scale food preparation during the ceremonial season. One farmer planned to send his daughter to learn from such a skilled cook, having in mind the food preparation which would be needed when his sons were old enough to be ordained. Adverse comments might be made if the food did not come up to expectation; thus, a small boy complained that his curry was "too salty," and an old woman said loudly that the curry made by her 16-year old grand-daughter was "not good," although this girl was the only one at home to cook.

Meal Patterns[1] and Preparation of Typical Thai Dishes

252 Food was commonly prepared twice a day, in the morning
264 and late afternoon. The meal pattern was the same for breakfast

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114 1. Suvarnakich (1950) described the Thai diet in a
262 general way and Sharp et al., (1953, pp. 263-274) summarized the small amount of information on diet in Bang Chan obtained during the preliminary study in 1948-49.

FOOD IN CONNECTION WITH FESTIVITIES AND CEREMONIES

262 796 A discussion of food habits in Bang Chan would be incomplete without some description of ceremonies ((1)ngaan)[1] which dominate the village scene during the dry, post-harvest season. These events are of interest in connection with food habits because of 1) the prominent place that food occupies in them, 2) the cultural significance and relatively large cost, both of which must be taken into account in any plans for dietary improvement and 3) the possible influence of differences in food habits at the ceremonial season and of problems of sanitation incident to large-scale food preparation on the nutrition and health of village residents.

796 The season for ceremonies and festivities opened with the harvest rites to the Rice Goddess and closed with the beginning of Buddhist Lent in mid-July. The big occasions were cremations, ordinations into the Buddhist priesthood, weddings, and rites for cutting of the topknot[2] or homage-to-the-
527 teacher.[3] Smaller family celebrations might mark such events as the raising and dedicating of a house, the return of a son from the army, or even public events such as the completion
274 of a road or a bridge. Whatever the focal activity, a gala meal was served first to priests and then to guests.

[786] Offering food to priests brought merit, which ensured happiness in later rebirths (see p. 9). Because the greater the number of priests served, the greater the merit, people were spurred to put on as large an affair as they could
554 afford. Moreover, a person was judged throughout the community by the abundance and quality of the food served daily and
527 at festivities. Thus, there was reason to make a (1)ngaan
796 as opulent as possible, but celebrations of every degree occurred in Bang Chan, from lavish feasts to simple ceremonies.

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[798] 1. Significantly the same Thai word is used for work and for ceremony.

[802] 2. Topknots, formerly worn by all Thai children, used to be cut ritually at the time of puberty. In Bang Chan, the growing of a topknot had become primarily an attempt to improve a child's health. Few school age children were topknots. They were usually cut earlier than puberty.

[976] 3. A person who had received specialized knowledge from a teacher gave thanks annually in a ceremony, to which those who had profited by this knowledge were obliged to come and/or contribute. Thus, all the patients of a traditional medical practitioner helped him to honor his teacher.

the priests had finished[1]. The trays of food from which each guest served himself were bountiful, but it was not proper to eat very heartily, lest the host suffer the shame of running out of food. If there were a dramatic show or movie at night it was open to the public. In one case 2000 people attended. At that time eight commercial venders turned up to sell coffee, soft drinks, ices and other foods. Venders came to every large ceremony, and were heavily patronized. At the end of a (1)ngaan, the sponsors felt satisfaction and security. Where there was plenty of food to take home, the success was even greater. An earthy compliment was, "the fields were full of feces."

In addition to the banquet were ceremonial offerings of food to spirits and ritual food sometimes consumed as a sacrament. For each ceremony, appropriate selections were made from a specific list: a cooked pig's head, or at least a slice of cooked pork; two kinds of sweetmeats, red ((2)kha-(5)nom (3)tom (1)deeseng) and white ((2)kha-(5)nom (3)tom (5)khaaw); a cooked fish, usually (1)plaa (3)chaunun, with its head and tail; a green coconut with its coconut water; a bunch of bananas either of the (3)kluaj (4)nam-(4)waa or (3)kluaj (4)nam varieties; a hard-boiled egg, usually duck; and liquor.[2] Other kinds of sweets, fruit, sugar cane, items for betel chewing, chicken, salt, and rice might appear. As these ceremonies were thought to be auspicious, purifying, therapeutic and protective, they were most elaborate at the great (1)tham-(1)khwan (soul-strengthening) ceremony, at house-raisings and at rites to local guardian spirits. The necessity of these ceremonies explains why when public structures were raised, a portion of the public funds were used for a repast. In Bang Chan when donations for a new school

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1. Other priorities in service might be observed; for example, at a celebration preceding ordination the priest-candidates were served next. At one small affair, when 11 priests came to a home to conduct a service for a disabled old man who could not go to the temple, this elder was served after the priests, then the research group who counted as visiting dignitaries, and finally the other family members, with the woman who prepared the food, and the children, eating last. The general sequence prescribed by etiquette was: priests should be served before anyone else, old before the young, the males before females, persons with high status such as teachers and ceremonialists before low, urban before rural. Those who cooked and served came last of all. When the number of participants was large, guests might be served, as they arrived, over a period of hours.

2. The presence of meat, fish and alcohol is this ceremonial food reflected non-Buddhist elements in Thai culture, and should not be viewed as a gross violation of Buddhist precepts.

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In Bang Chan when donations for a new school
264 building warranted buying the foundation materials, so that
476 volunteer labor was solicited for their installation, some of
546 the money went into food, despite additional donations of food. This was in no way misappropriation. Helping to cook was as important as helping to dig the holes.

782 The spirit-offering, or the portions eaten by a partic-
854 ipant as a sacrament, were actually tiny bits of each food. Afterward, the entire lay-out, pork, sweetmeats and all, was eaten. Because all this was holy food, it was felt to be especially strengthening, so was usually given to children, but might be eaten by family members and occasionally, priests.
862 The pork was cut up and eaten with a hot sauce, or put into a
882 "with-rice" dish. It was especially appropriate with liquor.

262 The use of food ritually was not limited to the ceremon-
755 ial season nor to big events. The same purposes underlay the
852 use of a hard-boiled egg eaten in the ceremony that was designed to restore a child "sick from temporary loss of its soul," and in another performed in order to wean a baby.

43 The benefits of a (l)ngaan accrued to every participant
554 down to the last worker and contributor according to the degree
796 of assistance. With status in this and in later lives at stake, no one hesitated to plunge into debt or even to sell land. For the sake of economy two different ceremonies might be performed on the same day, for example a child's topknot cutting at a daughter's wedding.[1] The saving was in time and expense for food preparation, but such multiple ceremonies were performed less often than one might expect.

796 One assistance in the financing was that every invited
476 guest made a contribution, customarily 5 to 10 baht, which
435 helped defray the costs. In 1952, household heads reported these contributions as totalling from 30 to 1.000 baht, with an average of 343 for the year (Janlekha, 1955). Of 96 household heads who provided information on special expenses during the 5-year period March, 1948 through February, 1953, 36 had given (l)ngaan with net expenditures (costs minus contributions) ranging from -10[2] to 15,000 baht. The average net cost was 4,361 baht (Janlekha, 1955). These figures might represent a single (l)ngaan or several events.

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1. Every desired ritual could be carried out at little cost. Thus a priest-candidate whose father was dead, was included in the pre-ordination festivities planned for a friend; and on one occasion five bodies were cremated at the same ceremony, which was sponsored by the kin of one of the deceased.

2. The -10 meant that contributions exceeded the cost.

511 appeared to account in large part for the greater cash expenditures of some families than others. Thus Household 25, with the highest total and per capita cash expenditure for food among these 11 families, consumed a larger quantity of meat than others, and often bought beef, which was the most expensive item purchased. This household bought fruit, meat, and vegetables from venders almost every day. They said "Some do not pay money to buy food, but pick or get it from the canal or gardens —this family cannot live like that because they come from a rich family and cannot live on poor food, so most of the money goes for food." The husband said "I cannot work on poor food." In Group A, Household 12, which had the highest per capita food expenditure, had little home produced food. The wife, who went to Bangkok often, usually bought food when in town. Household 2, with a total cash expenditure for food higher than others, did not have pork or beef on survey days, but ate more (1)plaa (1)thuu, a sea fish which is purchased.

433 511 Home Production of Food. - In keeping with the general pattern in the community, the families surveyed produced most of their own food.

293 449 256 262 Rice. - The hired laborer received rice as part of his pay, but all other families produced their own. Seven households used polished rice exclusively (Table 9). The only one to use home pounded rice in major part was Household 103. This family lived near a little canal which was dry in summer, so they were using home pounded rice when visited toward the end of March and in mid-July (Rounds IV and I). When the observer came in January (Round III), transportation of rice to the mill by boat was possible, but the family members had little farm work to do and were willing to spend some time milling rice. This family, which lived in the home-milling area (see p. 40), took rice to be milled only during the harvest season when they were busy, and the level of the canal was still high. The families which used home pounded rice in minor part did not live in the home-milling area, and apparently milled rice at home only when they were unable to get to the mill by boat.

844 Fruits and vegetables. - Although the Thai government has attempted to encourage kitchen gardening, few vegetables and fruits were produced by the families which cooperated in the dietary study (Table 10). All families grew bananas, and certain common ingredients of curries: chilies, bergamot, galangal and lemongrass. No other plants were grown by as many as half of the families studied.

222 262 Of the edible plants which grew wild, swamp cabbage was used by 7 families on 11 of the 44 survey days. Bamboo shoots, the white flowers of the West Indian pea tree and yellow (2)sa-(5)noo flowers were used by 3 families on one day each;

000 First steps toward a better diet are suggested by the best dietary practices observed. Although the calculated intake of no family on any survey day approximated or exceeded the estimated allowances for all nutrients, sharp contrasts were evident in individual records. Two sample calculations in Appendix C (pp. 121-122) represent one of the better and one of the poorer records obtained. The food for Household 12, on Jan. 14, 1954 consisted chiefly of polished rice, fish, and non-leafy vegetable, with seasonings. In contrast, on July 23, 1953, Household 16 used home-milled rice, and about 60 gm. per person of swamp cabbage, with other vegetables and fish. These choices enhanced the potential nutritive value of the diet markedly without increasing its cash cost. Family labor was involved, however, in gathering greens and milling rice.

000 Since rice is the chief solid food for all ages, improving this major item will be considered first. An important step would be to teach the people to cook rice with just enough water so that all would be absorbed. The Thai government has sought to encourage this. So long as the practice of cooking rice in excess water persists, much of its vitamin and mineral content will be discarded, and efforts to improve the nutrient content of rice will be largely nullified. Some rice water could be used as a beverage, and for cooking certain vegetables which are commonly served with a thickened sauce. This would be preferable to discarding the rice water, but encouraging its use must be considered as an alternative to cooking rice without excess water, since the two practices are mutually exclusive.

Use of under-milled and processed rice, and of the rice polishings, has the advantage that a large part of the original B-complex content is conserved, whereas vitamins for enrichment are at present imported, and are apt to be for years to come. Since home milling persisted to some extent in Bang Chan, it might be encouraged, in some families. One highly respected headman continued to mill rice at home, hence the "prestige value" of white rice may not be so important in Bang Chan as it is among city Thai, who sometimes regard undermilled rice as "prisoner's food." The time and effort involved in home milling, however, may deter those who have given it up from returning to it; and since deepening the main canal has made the mill accessible to more families the year round, a program based on the assumption that commercial milling of rice will increase is probably more realistic than an attempt to encourage the return to home milling where it has been abandoned.

256 At present, no processed rice is made in Thailand. A plan to buy and install a Malekizing plant to process rice for the Royal Thai Navy was announced in 1953, but the plan has not materialized. Enriched rice has been sold by the Thai Rice Company for some years, but the best grades only,

4:Phillips E-4,5 (1956-1957) 1966
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continually brings to the attention of the villagers urban standards and aspirations which, whenever possible, they attempt to apply to themselves. L. M. Hanks (1959*b*: 19) sees the operation of this characteristic acculturative mechanism in Bang Chan in terms of the villagers' "search for respectability": "A respectable cremation requires an orchestra; a respectable dwelling a tile roof; a respectable sickness an injection; and a respectable family must chaperone carefully its growing daughters. So run a host of points which help to bolster but not necessarily to advance social position."

Yet, after the relationship between village and town has been considered, Bang Chan remains very much a peasant community, whose residents are concerned first and foremost with the cultivation of rice, the maintenance of their monastery, and their own immediate social environment. Despite aspirations, many Bang Chan cremations must go without the orchestra; most dwellings lack the tile roof; injections are taken only by those who can afford them; and the necessity for boys and girls to work together during harvest time, a period of unavoidably infectious joy, precludes any rigidly imposed chaperonage. Perhaps the best assessment of the cultural position of Bang Chan was provided by the writer's field assistant—an individual born and reared in a village in the Northeast who, although in many respects worldly and urbane, maintained an almost passionate identification with his peasant background—who said: "When I first came here to Bang Chan, I never thought that people living so close to Bangkok could be real Thai villagers. But they are. They are not as friendly and hospitable as Northeastern peasants, and they are more interested in money, but they have a much greater love of the land. No city person could ever think and feel as they do."

Family Life and Social Organization

In terms of the traditional categories of social structural analysis, the social organization of Bang Chan is strikingly simple. There are essentially only five social units which demand, and toward which villagers express, relatively enduring psychological commitments. These are the nuclear family;

home from school, the curriculum for which is written and directed by Ministry of Education officials in the city. Approximately 14 percent of Bang Chan households have battery driven radios (there is no electricity in the village) and approximately 60 percent of the villagers can read, although considerably fewer actually have the proficiency to go comfortably through a newspaper; theoretically the same number of people can write, but few Bang Chan adults have the courage to take pencil to paper without feeling discomfort over their handwriting, spelling, and knowledge of stylistic forms. Newspapers that people bring home from town are passed around and read more for their entertainment than information; the few books that are seen in the village are pulp magazines, religious or moralistic writings, and occasionally do-it-yourself pamphlets ("How to Raise Chickens the Modern Way").

4:Phillips E-4,5 (1956-1957) 1966
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858 828 child is clearly a social inferior, and is due all the prerogatives of his position: he is to be dealt with gently, kindly, and benevolently, with sympathetic regard for his incompetence; correlatively, he must be taught to express deference and obedience to superiors. Rather, the equality awarded the child results from the recognition that in the workings of the cosmic scale it is impossible to ascertain what the child could once have been or eventually will become, and he, like any soul, is always *potentially* of the same value as any other person. It is precisely for this reason that most Bang Chaners, if they mention it at all, are only mildly pleased rather than particularly proud that one of their own grew up to become an admiral in the Thai Navy. It comes as no great surprise that such a thing can happen. To them, it is no more unusual than that the prime minister himself should be a person who was born and reared in a village. (By the same token, the peasant background of these two individuals creates no special sense of personal identification with them on the part of the villagers. They are perceived simply as two unique *individuals*, their peasant roots being viewed as only one of the literally countless factors that made them what they are today.)[27] To a large extent, the equality of the child derives from the premise that he is not so much a child as he is a human being who happens to be at a particular stage in his ontological

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time). When probed further and asked if their parents' training may have had any influence on these individuals, they replied "yes" and "maybe" in the case of the admiral, but disavowed all parental influence in the case of the *nagkleeng*. A few said that the *nagkleeng* became that way because of bad friends.

One villager, phrasing his comment as a personal conjecture, volunteered that the notion of parents being the major influence on a child's character is a "modern" idea. Another informant, the wife of a school teacher and well versed in her husband's teaching training manual (prepared in Bangkok by Western-trained educators) argued that a person's character is dependent "mostly on the influence of the home and school." However, since on other occasions she complained to me that one of her sons "does not have an *?upanidsaj* for studying, and there is nothing a parent can do but let the child have his own way," it would suggest that her commitment to the pronouncements of her husband's mentors was not too well internalized. [115]

To avoid confusion, it might be added that from a historical point of view only one of the above cosmological forces (*kam*) is strictly Buddhistic in origin. The others are either Brahmanic (*khwaam* and *phroomlʔkhid*) or traditionally Thai (*?upanidsaj*, *winjaan*, and *caj*). Of all the terms, *kam* and *?upanidsaj* are the ones most frequently referred to when discussing an individual's character.

[27] It is precisely for this reason, as I indicated in an earlier writing on Thai social structure (see Sharp *et al.* 1956: 163) that Thai society "cannot be said to have a class system in the classical European sense of the term." People identify with others as individuals, not as representatives of social classes. [565] [591]

The very fact that individual peasant boys can climb the social ladder to attain some of the highest social positions of the land, without it even being considered particularly noteworthy, attests to the fundamental equalitarian nature of the ideas underlying the Thai social system despite the obvious emphasis given to status and hierarchy in individual face-to-face relationships. [554]

4:Phillips E-4,5 (1956-1957) 1966
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Chan. However, there remains the crucial question of how villagers manage to develop the long-term relationships that they do have, for despite the inevitable unpredictability of all human contacts, most Bang Chaners do live together in family units for more or less sustained periods of time, fathers do save for years in order to give their sons respectable ordinations into the monkhood, relatives and friends who have not seen each other since childhood do assemble for the cremation of a late kinsman or mutual friend, and mature adults do continue to feel a profound sense of respect and obligation to individuals who were their teachers when they were youngsters. What are the bases and rewards for these enduring interpersonal commitments?

The immediate rewards for these commitments are, on the one hand, quite apparent. They involve such things as the simple, unrationalized kind of love found among any group of kin or close friends. In the case of the ordination and cremation, there is the reward of making merit, not only for the son and the departed soul, but for all those who sponsor and participate in the ceremonials. The satisfactions gained from increasing one's social prestige by putting on an ostentatious ceremonial are not to be overlooked either. At a more subtle level in the case of the respectful student, the reward is gained from knowing that one is behaving in a proper and courteous way toward one's *aacaan* (in its social psychological connotations, similar to the Indian term *guru*) and is thus upholding established normative patterns. The rewards of maintaining the rituals of the moral order are not to be glossed over for Bang Chaners, like most Siamese, are a deeply ethical people. This is not meant as an evaluation of their behavior or as a statement of their capacity to conform to their ethical prescriptions, but simply as a statement of their preoccupation with ethical concerns. The rewards of *feeling* (genuinely or self-deceptively) that one has behaved in an ethically and ritualistically prescribed way are among the most satisfying of sentiments, although as indicated in the discussion of "social cosmetics," villagers often use the rituals of ethical behavior as substitutes for more demanding interpersonal involvements. Indeed, the great emphasis given to the performance of ethical rituals (speaking in soft and gentle words, honoring one's mentors) helps perpetuate the loosely structured relationships found in the community in that conformity to these rituals is perceived by many as comprising the fulfillment of their interpersonal obligations. Beyond this they are free to pursue their own interests. To a large extent the ritualistic forms serve as a comforting psychological justification for the pursuit of individualistic concerns, *i.e.*, "But I otherwise treat others so nicely." [20] This is not the result of conscious

[20] In one of his more recent and typically penetrating works, Goffman (1963) coins the terms "Involvement Shields," "Main Involvements," and "Subordinate

arbitrary, were it not for the Buddhist temples, a neighboring government-operated primary school, and a few small stores, all of which provide a center for the community. There the inhabitants paddle their boats for religious observances, their children attend school, and anyone with a few minutes gossips over a cup of coffee. These people, furthermore, speak of themselves when outside the community as coming from Bang Chan, and the temple familiarly called "Wat Bang Chan" helps outsiders to identify the particular area. 361 621

The community's 1600 inhabitants live in one of seven hamlets, each with an officiating headman who may offer some leadership to the neighborhood. Bang Chan has no political unity beyond the informal influence of the head priest at the temple, for administrative units of local government disregard its social and psychological coherence. On one side of the main canal headmen go a rough two miles to attend meetings with the District Officer, while their neighbors across the canal must spend half a day on the canal to reach the district offices which govern them. 161 621 634 624

As the survey results indicate, about 88 per cent of the households receive the major portion of their income from cultivating rice, though many of these men and women turn briefly to other occupations during the slack season. The remaining fraction is divided between persons engaged in trade as storekeepers or vendors and those in such service occupations as highway labor or school janitor. 621 243 434 443 464

A little less than half of the population owns the land or a portion of the land it works, the remainder renting from neighbors and landholders living away from Bang Chan. Though land becomes scarcer every year and its subdivision into small plots finer, land problems and landlord problems are not important concerns of the area farmers. Economic factors also grant higher status within the community to landholders than to renters and the landless. So also age and religious piety bring respect. Yet social structure articulates flexibly enough to afford a young renter of good reputation and energy a decent hearing at a meeting, and indeed, he might carry his point in a group of wealthy landholders. Two or three times in past generations young men have moved from thatched houses in Bang Chan to high government positions in Bangkok through fortunate connections that enabled them to attend leading schools, as well as through their own industry. People merely invoke the Buddhist concept of accumulating merit in present and past lives through good deeds when they comment on the rise of such persons, for with sufficient merit all is possible. Thus regularity in the socio-economic order becomes a moderate level of probability admitting many exceptions. 423 427 554 621 [555] [771]

novice; there was noticeable increases in those for farm laborers and traders, and a slight increase in that for investors, which were offset by a marked decrease in figures for farm operators and slight drops in those for the professional and home enterprisers. In order to understand these changes in the occupational structure of the village, more information on some of these occupation than that given in our operational definitions at the beginning of this chapter is necessary.

Farm operation is a traditional way of life in the village. The primary motive is to secure enough rice for consumption. A secondary motive is to have cash from sale of surplus rice to buy goods that are not produced locally.

Farm laboring as a profession is limited to the poor. Farm laborers, occupying the lowest status in the village, are the most unstable and socially disintegrated group. They are not fully employed even during the work seasons of the year because there are too many of them in the locality. Thus, they exist in the village not because of demand for their work but because they have no opportunity for other occupations.

There were twenty-one families that were classified as traders in 1953. Of these, nine were permanent storekeepers, and twelve were peddlers selling food stuffs from door to door. Stores were situated at strategic places in the village -- two at the crossing of Minburi Road and Bangchan Canal which is the natural entrance into the village,

243 parcels by siblings who failed to include their share in
423 those parcels in the reporting of areas owned. For want
427 of a proper basis for adjustment, we chose to let the figures
128 stand as they were reported.

Table 19 shows that the combined area in rice of all the 216 farms in Bangchan was 6,638 rai, or almost 99 per cent of total area planted to rice by the residents, the balance of 84 rai being worked on by residents whose occupations were those other than farm operating. Of these 216 farms, 48 were classified as all owned, 88 part owned, and 80 all rented.

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The conventional system of classifying farms according to land tenure into all owned (owner-operator), part-owned (part-owner), and all rented (tenant) should not be used without modification as a classification of economic or social status in population pressure areas where an efficient size farm is usually an exception rather than a rule. In these areas, it does not hold, as it seems to imply, that an owner-operator has a superior economic status than a part-owner and that a part-owner is still in a better economic position than a tenant. There is a wide range in size of farm operation and hence of incomes within these categories.

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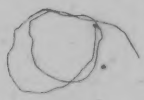
Within the category of owner-operator, there are major differences in size of operation and hence economic and social status. If a farmer -- to cite a specific case, Farmer A in BC4 -- owns the large area of rice of 235 rai,

[TEXT CONTINUED ON PAGE 133a]



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he may rent out some and retain only the part he can operate well. In this case he chose to operate 65 rai in 1953, renting out the balance of 170 rai. On the other hand, another farmer -- Farmer B, also in BC4 -- who owns only a small parcel of nine rai may not be able to rent in additional land to make an efficient size farm. In this case, B was not able to rent in any land and had to work on only nine rai of his own in 1953. In an area of relatively low population pressure, the probability of failure to rent in some more land may be small, but it is not so small in the relatively high population pressure areas such as Bangchan. The difference between farmers owning a small area of land and a large area is so great from the standpoint of economics and social position as to warrant having two sub-divisions of the conventional "owner-operators".

Small "owner-operators" may increase their size of operation by renting in some more land and thus becoming part-owners. These farmers actually improve their socio-economic status if they are able to move from the group of owner-operators into the group of part-owners. To use another concrete example, Farmer B, mentioned in the preceding paragraph, who worked on the nine-rai parcel of his own, does not earn more farm income than Farmer C, also in BC4, who owned 20 rai and still rented in 30 more rai in order that his four family workers including himself might be fully employed with a 50-rai farm.

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184 c. The family's purchasing power. Certain goods
511 considered as luxuries -- medicine, eggs, pork and beef, and white sugar -- were not consumed by poor families.

184 d. Individual taste and preference. The Moslems
276 would not consume any pork although they had enough money
261 to buy it. Some poor farmers spent more money on curry
182 essence than their more affluent neighbors because they
511 preferred highly flavored dishes, and some tobacco smokers did not spend a cent on tobacco binder because tney preferred the home-grown banana leaf binder to the thatch leaf binder which had to be purchased.

182 e. Producing ability of the family. It was observed
511 that those who caught more fish tended to consume more fish
[184] regardless of their financial conditions.

f. Health affected the consumption of medicine.

[431] g. Prestige affected the amount of cash contributions
[476] to neighbors.
[554]

h. Personal habits -- thrift, fun loving, indulgence, like or dislike of liquor -- affected the amount of personal expense.

i. Presence or absence of children of school age in the family affected the consumption of cookies.

Special Expenses

511 By special expenses we mean major items of expenses which do not occur regularly but which may arise in one time or another. Examples: purchases of land, gold and